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ABSTRACT

This guide is designed to help administrators, program coordinators, and teachers of bilingual children devise more effective ways of helping children learn. The role of evaluation in program planning and execution is described and some general factors to be considered when planning and evaluating bilingual education programs are reviewed. The roles of formative and summative evaluation are discussed as feedback for pupils, teachers, and program administrators. Aspects of standardized tests are explained and features of good program objectives are presented. Eight general categories of language skills encompassed by bilingual programs are illustrated in a bilingual language skills matrix. Linguistic competence and linguistic performance are differentiated and it is shown that only linguistic performance, that is, the degree of mastery of language skills as demonstrated or assessed in the classroom, can be assessed with confidence in school settings. The various roles of testing and evaluation are described in the broader contexts of bilingual program planning. A selected bibliography is appended. (Author/AMH)

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EVALUATIVE ASPECTS OF
BILINGUAL PROGRAMS:
A GENERAL GUIDE

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The University of the State of New York
THE STATE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT
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U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH,
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Questions about programmatic matters should be directed to the appropriate regional office of the Bureau of Bilingual Education (see Appendix). Questions about evaluation should be directed to Nicholas Argyros, Bureau of School and Categorical Programs Evaluation, (518) 474-8216.

INTRODUCTION

^a This booklet is designed as a general guide for school administrators, program coordinators and teachers of bilingual¹ children to devise more effective ways of helping children learn. It does not intend to specify what teaching procedures to use, what materials and textbooks to buy, or what tests to administer. Instead, it is intended to describe the role of evaluation in program planning and execution.

Bilingual education programs in New York State are funded in whole or in part with Federal funds (e.g. ESEA Title I, Title VII, Title IVC), State funds (e.g. Additional Apportionment State Aid [AASA or PSEN], Chapter 720), general state aid or local district tax levies. Despite the recent recognition of the need for specific programs and funds to serve the State's bilingual population, there is little research in the field to guide the bilingual educator. As a result, much discussion and controversy attends the field of bilingual education.

There are many reasons for differences of opinion about bilingual education. First is the relatively recent inception of large-scale bilingual programs born out of the social and political awareness of Federal and State legislative bodies. The initial impetus to get programs operational and functioning to meet immediate needs left few resources for careful analysis of program operations and outcomes.

^{1/} The definition of bilingual in this context includes a) children who have limited English proficiency due to linguistic background other than English; or b) children in whose homes language other than English is spoken.

The second reason is that language is the most complex and advanced of human behaviors. Language has been the focus of study of many fields, including linguistics, psychology and pedagogy. It may or may not be possible to satisfactorily integrate contemporary theories and research findings of sociolinguists, psycholinguists, transformational grammarians, cultural anthropologists, social psychologists, educational psychologists, and child psychologists (to name a few) and make them practically applicable to the day-to-day activities of the teacher of language. Obviously, the problems are compounded when more than one language is involved.

The third reason that bilingual education is subject to much discussion is because most matters in education today are worthy of controversy and attention. Educational curriculum designers, administrators, teachers and researchers have found few universally applicable and few generally agreed-upon "truths." The potential number of variants to be considered in an educational research study is so large that broad generalizations are seldom possible; the conditions and circumstances in one situation may be quite different in other settings, with other children, or on other occasions.

In spite of the difficulties involved, it is important for all people who work in education to strive to improve the learning opportunities of pupils in every possible way.

EVALUATION

Evaluation should be viewed as a feedback mechanism and guide at all levels of education. Teachers continually "evaluate" their pupils every time they say, "That's right, Juan; very good." Whenever a pupil responds in class, he or she expects some feedback about the response in order to guide future responses. Similarly, teachers evaluate (monitor) the progress of their pupils to determine what the next level of instruction should be. Teachers get feedback from pupils to guide their day-to-day activities. Textbooks and other published learning materials usually have some form of evaluative feedback incorporated into their design. Teacher-made instructional materials (e.g., worksheets, unit tests) are often designed for the purpose of evaluative feedback. Thus, evaluation is an integral part of education. This continual evaluation is frequently referred to as "formative evaluation," since it assesses the ongoing (formative) process of instruction.

In a broader context, teachers, coordinators, planners, administrators and funders of educational programs need objective feedback about program effectiveness. This feedback is generally accomplished with "summative evaluation" at the end of each funded year incorporating some type of standardized achievement test. The word "standardized," as used here, simply means that (a) there are wide agreement and substantiating data that the test measures the trait(s) which it purports to measure and (b) that the test results from one administration of the test to another vary in about the same degree as the measured trait(s). In other words, a standardized test is valid and reliable.

A standardized test also meets the criteria implicit in two meanings of the term "standard": (a) when standard or uniform procedures are used in administering the test and (b) standards of performance are available either in the form of a comparative group (norm group) or an expected mastery level (competence level) of performance.

Both norm-referenced and criterion-referenced types of tests can meet these definitions of "standardized." Norm-referenced tests (NRT) are those in which a standard of comparison is a "norm" group of peers who have characteristics similar to the pupils in the program. Criterion-referenced tests (CRT) are those in which the standard of comparison is an expected level of performance or mastery of skills.

A major difference between NRT and CRT is in the way in which the test results are used and interpreted. Test results can be more helpful to the teacher/evaluator if they are used in both ways. A given test result can be interpreted by asking: "How well is Juan doing compared to his peers?" and "How well is Juan doing compared to what he is expected to have mastered at this time?" The first question is considered norm-referenced; the second question is criterion-referenced.

In some areas of bilingual education, few commercially available tests are appropriate; the use of locally devised standardized tests may be necessary in such instances. Some sources of test information for bilingual educators are listed in the Appendices.

Teacher-made tests or specialized locally devised instruments can be standardized by applying some basic and straightforward, but rather technical, educational measurement principles. Appendix A lists a few of the textbooks in the field of educational measurement and evaluation which describe the procedures of test construction, standardization and statistical analyses. The technical details of devising and standardizing instruments are also described in other textbooks on the subject. Bilingual project administrators who have encountered and identified the need for a standardized assessment instrument, where no existing instrument is appropriate or adequate, should consider including the cost of test development and standardization in bilingual project proposals or should consider applying for competitive development grants (e.g., innovative programs of Title IVC).

OBJECTIVES

Good program objectives are essential for good program evaluation. A specific program objective should be distinguished from a general objective or a societal goal relating to education. Evaluative problems are compounded when educators who devise program objectives do not clearly state the desired outcomes of a given program. Each program objective should:

- (a) state expectations in measurable (or behavioral) terms;
- (b) be stated in terms of the learner;
- (c) state the expected (terminal) performance;
- (d) state the conditions imposed on the learner when performing the desired behavior (e.g., time limits);
- (e) specify only one expected outcome;
- (f) specify or clearly imply a base-level of performance (or standard) against which the achievement of the terminal outcome can be compared.

Clear instructional objectives tend to improve the probability of achieving the desired educational intents. Appendix B lists some materials relating to the design of objectives.

Although some of a bilingual program's objectives may be drawn from the psychomotor domain (e.g., as in learning the communication functions of kinesics or "body language"), or the affective domain (e.g., as in learning the social values of another culture), most instructional objectives are assumed to be cognitive in nature. More specifically, since the general aims of bilingual education concentrate on developing linguistic competence, program objectives should be designed to be measurable in terms of linguistic performance.

Formative evaluation should be planned to provide pupils, teachers and coordinators useful feedback about the ongoing progress in achieving program objectives. Summative evaluation should be designed to yield at least a year-to-year assessment of overall project success.

BILINGUAL LANGUAGE SKILLS MATRIX

The diagram on the following page illustrates some of the complexities of bilingual education. The eight cells of the matrix represent different competencies or skills that are distinct yet inter-related in bilingual persons. Four cells represent native (or primary) language skills; four cells represent comparable English language skills. The cells are numbered as follows:

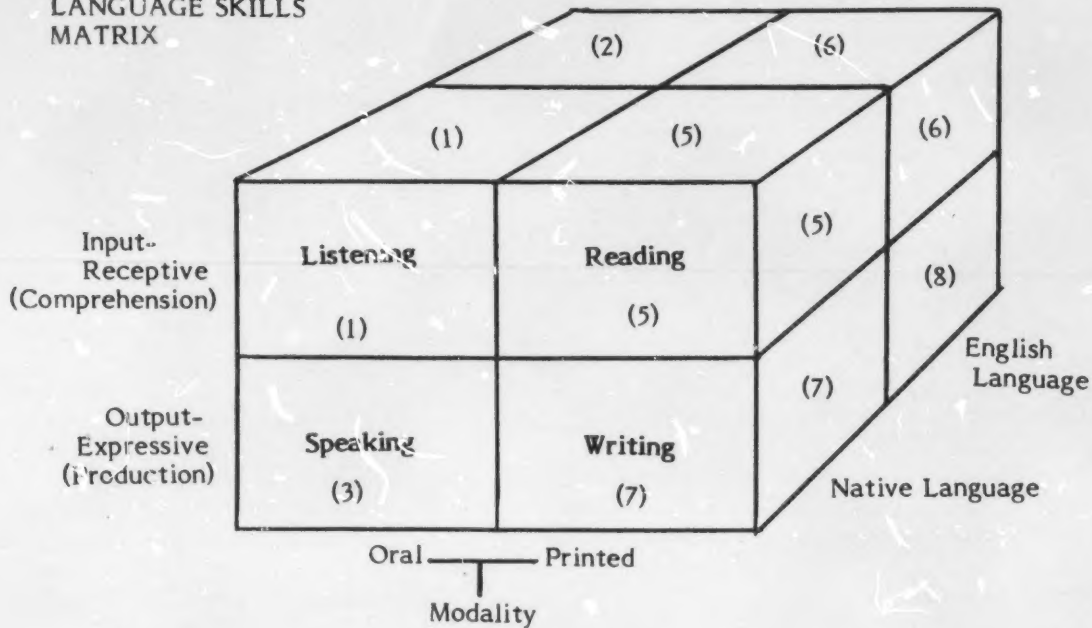
1. Listening comprehension in native language, or receptive (input) skills in oral mode.
2. Same as #1, but in English language.
3. Speaking production in native language, or expressive (output) skills in oral mode.
4. Same as #3, but in English language (cell #4 is not visible in the diagram).
5. Reading comprehension in native language, or receptive (input) skills in printed mode.
6. Same as #5, but in English language.
7. Writing production in native language, or expressive (output) skills in printed mode.
8. Same as #7, but in English language.

To a certain degree, these language skills develop hierarchically; for example, listening skills precede speaking skills and oral skills normally precede written skills. The various elements of language (e.g., vocabulary [semantics], grammar [syntax]) are included in each of these skills.

Educational practice should follow natural developmental patterns in both monolingual and bilingual programs by building new language skills upon those already acquired by the child. Research evidence has suggested that at certain ages some language skills which are not mastered or fully developed may be affected adversely during a sudden transition to another language. In fact, if language skills are developed hierarchically, care must be exercised when transferring a learner from

BILINGUAL LANGUAGE SKILLS MATRIX

BILINGUAL LANGUAGE SKILLS MATRIX



one language to another, especially between levels of the hierarchy. Educators must be concerned with the natural developmental patterns in two-language programs.

With some English-dominant children, oral language skills already acquired at home may be both incomplete and substantially different from "school" English. These children may have greater difficulty in the transition from one language to another than other children. The situation is more acute for children whose native language is other than English. In certain instances, early schooling should aim at the further development and maintenance of preschool native language by building cognitive skills with the oral language skills which the child brings to school.

The implications for educational practice are to use the oral (listening-speaking) mode in the native language (cells 1 and 3) to develop reading-writing skills (cells 5 and 7) in the first two or three years of schooling. As native language skills develop, formal instruction in the second language (English) should also begin in the oral mode (cells 2 and 4). If native language skills (cells 1, 3, 5 and 7) are fairly well mastered, and if oral English skills (cells 2 and 4) have developed both in school and nonschool settings, then the acquisition of English reading-writing skills (cells 6 and 8) should be relatively rapid, perhaps by the fourth grade. An attempt to instill mastery of skills in cells 6 and 8 too early (e.g. before cells 2 and 4 are developed) or without considerable nonschool support (e.g., by community language influences) would likely lead to frustration and failure. Of course, individual differences among children would affect the readiness to begin skill acquisition in any of the cells. This is true of monolingual children (only 4 cells) and doubly true for bilinguals who have 8 sets of skills to master. Although the skills are closely interrelated, programmatically and "edumetrically," they should be considered distinct. "Edumetric" in this sense refers to the measurement (with appropriate tests) of the skills which the educational program's objectives address.

The edumetric complexities in bilingual education in part reflect the programmatic complex-

ities. Effective programs require the appropriate use of educational assessment devices (or "tests" in their various forms). Tests serve many functions in education, including diagnosis of problem areas, proper placement in programs, and the formative and summative evaluation purposes described previously. Ideally, a maximum of information should be derived from a minimum of testing. However, tests which are specifically designed to serve a particular function often do not serve other functions well. For this reason, tests must be selected with care and with consideration for the needs and objectives of the educational program. This is especially the case in bilingual programs where skills may be assessed in more than one language. At this time, there is no neat "package" of tests available to the bilingual educator which will serve the various purposes of bilingual language testing. However, the gaps are gradually being filled as the evaluation needs are recognized.

The most extensive collection of assessment devices available in bilingual education is for native speakers of Spanish. A review of tests and instruments designed to assess various language skills in English and Spanish reveals the following characteristics:

- (a) most of the instruments assess only oral skills (cells 1, 2, 3, 4 in the matrix on page 8);
- (b) most are appropriate only in primary grades, K-3;
- (c) many are more appropriate for regional linguistic variations other than Puerto Rican;
- (d) many have not demonstrated desirable or sufficient psychometric qualities relating to reliability and validity;
- (e) many require individual administration, as should be expected at the earlier grade levels;
- (f) many do not have appropriate norms based on applicable populations and/or well-defined criteria for mastery-level performance.

There are few omnibus test batteries now available to assess Spanish and English language skills with acceptable validity in all eight matrix areas and at all grade levels. The use of comprehensive

test batteries or some combination of specialized language assessment instruments, even if less than ideal, together with responsible professional judgment is essential for proper placement, appropriate programming and valid evaluation. Carefully chosen and correctly used, language tests can provide bilingual pupils and teachers with valid and objective feedback which is preferable to subjective judgment alone.

SOME LINGUISTIC CONSIDERATIONS

Linguistic considerations about second-language (L2) learning are derived from various sources. Researchers in the fields of cognitive psychology, psycholinguistics and transformational grammar (as well as other fields) have recognized that creativity with language is important evidence of language learning and communicative competence.

"It is the learner's creativity that needs to be investigated when his language ability is being tested, and not his ability to utter remembered phrases and sentences.

"Structural and contrastive linguistics, together with psychometrics, had a significant impact on language tests... The content of language tests [should] be based on a linguistic analysis in structural terms. While [Lado, 1969] recognized the need to test language performance as a set of integrated skills, he recommended that the test maker isolate the linguistic features (the units of sound and grammar) of the language in question and test them one by one. Standardized second-language tests produced during the 1960's embody these principles of test construction" (Stern, et al. 1978, p. 413).

Linguistic competence (ability to communicate in a language) is to be distinguished from language performance represented by classroom exercises in language skills or by test items measuring language skills. In classroom settings, language learning carries a degree of artificial structure and lack of context which is probably an unavoidable pedagogical necessity.

On the other hand, naturalistic day-to-day "speech events" are more complex than most tasks found in structured learning exercises or assessment devices. This additional level of complexity of language has been examined by sociolinguistic analysis or the "ethnography of communication." The

keys to understanding speech events include knowledge of social roles and the relative status of participants. The ability to communicate effectively under natural conditions implies awareness of the sociolinguistic dimension of language including such aspects as:

- (a) participants in the communication (senders and receivers)
- (b) channels of communication (speech, writing, body language)
- (c) language "codes" shared (e.g., geographic and social dialect differences)
- (d) situation (context, environment, conditions)
- (e) message form (genre) and its constraints
- (f) contents and attitudes conveyed in the communication (e.g., by inflection and emphasis) (Hymes, 1974).

Thus, communicative competence suggests something more than what is usually taught or tested in the classroom. In addition to syntax and semantics, the natural flow of discourse implies that the speaker or listener, writer or reader, must make internal connections within language itself and with the situational context of language application. While it is unlikely that communicative competence can be directly assessed by a set of language tasks such as found in tests, it is nevertheless imperative that pupils' performance in the various language skills be measured as accurately and thoroughly as current instruments allow.

Sociolinguistic research has also suggested that the learning of a second language involves two motivational components:

- (a) a useful purpose for L2 learning and
- (b) a psychological preparedness to adopt aspects of another linguistic-cultural group (Gardner and Labert, 1972).

In other words, to be effective, bilingual educators and programs should aim to arouse motivation in L2 learners, as follows:

- (a) If learning L2 is perceived to have little practical or useful purpose, then pupils will have little motivation to succeed. Fortunately, in elementary grades, such motivation is usually "built-in" with the broader aspects of schooling: children are expected to learn what is being taught and they receive the scholastic rewards (social approval, grades, etc.) which attend successful learning. However, in the higher grade levels, motivation is not as intrinsic to the process of schooling and must be developed from a more practical point of view. For example, broader social, economic, career and vocational opportunities are available to those with L2 competence.
- (b) If learning L2 is perceived as an intrusion on, or in conflict with, aspects of native culture then there will be little success in teaching L2. Language and culture are closely intertwined; bilingual implies bicultural. The L2 learner must be prepared and willing to integrate portions of cultural background with aspects associated with another linguistic-cultural group. In some instances, aspects of L2 culture will need more emphasis in bilingual programs than aspects of native culture, since the latter is already better known by the pupil.

Motivation described in (a) above is needed in all educational programs. Type (b) motivation, however, seems unique to L2 programs.

SOME PROGRAMMATIC CONSIDERATIONS

Educators who are planning or conducting bilingual educational programs should clearly specify the following aspects of the project plans:

- a. target population: definitions of eligibility or criteria for program participation.
- b. needs assessment: degree or extent of need for particular program and for specific target populations.
- c. objectives: intended and expected outcomes of project, as related to knowledges, skills and attitudes of project participants; criteria for judging success.
- d. diagnosis: identification of participant's levels of achievement and instructional needs
- e. prescription: procedures for appropriate placement and instruction in relation to diagnosis.
- f. procedures: specification of appropriate instructional activities, methodologies, materials, staffing, scheduling, testing devices, etc., designed to meet project objectives.
- g. staff: appropriately qualified personnel.
- h. evaluation: formative evaluation for ongoing monitoring of pupil progress and summative evaluation at end of project term to assess project effectiveness.

Bilingual projects should have an additional dimension: the latitude and capacity for highly individualized educational programming (IEP) based on the needs of the individual pupil. It is important to take into account the nature and extent of a pupil's prior experiences with both native and English language. In addition, the degree and quality of a pupil's exposure to English language in non-school (home and peer-group) environments affects the type of English language experience the school should provide and the ease of transition from one language to another. It may be that, when a pupil's native language experience is more "saturated" in a cultural milieu, the English language

experience in school settings becomes more important and critical to success.

The primary aim of bilingual education programs is assumed to be to develop students' communicative competence to enable effective functioning in bilingual/bicultural situations. Language skills, like other skills, need to be practiced and applied regularly in order to fully develop. Under certain circumstances, the opportunities for using native language (especially oral-expressive aspects) are extensive in nonschool settings. On the other hand, opportunities to practice L2 (English) may be limited to a few hours daily, usually in the classroom. In such cases, program emphasis on L2 language production is especially important for developing bilingual competence.

Whereas most of this document discusses language learning and evaluation, it is to be understood that bilingual programs frequently include other content areas of instruction, such as mathematics, science and social studies. In these areas, the pupils' level of language proficiency suggests the preferred language of instruction, especially at the secondary level. Assessment of pupil progress and evaluation of program effectiveness in native-language content areas (other than language skills, per se) are difficult, at best, given the current lack of satisfactory assessment instruments.

One aspect of bilingual education has undergone much debate and many pronouncements: What should be the language of instruction for pupils who live in an environment where one language is used but who are expected to function in a broader culture where a second language is used? The discussion of this question can become heated and politicized when people apply terms which are laden with cultural values to the two languages. The problem really contains two basic questions about the pupil's language proficiency: Will the learner advance more rapidly if taught in the language spoken in the home environment or will the learner achieve broader educational goals if taught subjects other than language arts in the second language? Bilingual and ESL methodologies,

used in many of the categorically aided programs in New York State, are answering these questions in a variety of ways.

New York State Education Law, Section 3204, permits the language of instruction, under certain conditions, to be in a language other than English for a specified number of years.

In the teaching of the subjects of instruction other than foreign languages, English shall be the language of instruction, and textbooks used shall be written in English, except that for a period of three years from the date of enrollment in school, pupils who, by reason of foreign birth, ancestry or otherwise, experience difficulty in reading and understanding English, may, at the discretion of the board of education, board of trustees or trustee, be instructed in all subjects in their native language and in English. The period may be extended by the Commissioner with respect to individual pupils, upon application therefore by the appropriate school authorities, to a period not in excess of six years. [p. 20 in 1978 edition of "Minimum Requirements for Schools in New York State."].

Screening and eligibility requirements may differ among the various categorically aided bilingual programs. In general, the following procedure will help ensure the matching of individual pupil needs with instructional programs, and the tailoring of programs to meet changing pupil needs.

A standardized test in English language skills should be administered to each potential participant to estimate level of L2 proficiency and to determine eligibility for project participation based on entry-level criteria. Learners who cannot function well with the language of instruction can be identified for supplemental instruction.

A number of assessment devices (including tests, inventories, scales, etc.) are available for the

purposes of screening. In this regard, assessments of language proficiency in both native and English languages yield more useful information than a measure of language dominance alone. In some cases, a pupil's test results may indicate a "floor effect;" that is, the pupil's test score is so low that it could have been obtained by random guessing. When this occurs, it is appropriate to administer a lower level of the test, if one is available, to obtain a valid assessment of language proficiency.

Tests appropriate for screening-placement may not be as useful for program evaluation. Summative evaluation conducted at the conclusion of each program year should use tests (a) which are sensitive to measuring growth in pupil learning, (b) which have item-content matched by the project's instructional objectives, (c) which meet the standards of reliability and validity, and (d) which are standardized.

While informal or subjective evaluation procedures may be used for formative evaluation during the project treatment (e.g., teacher-made tests, unit tests, grading, teacher judgment), it is important to use objectively based data to assess learner growth at the conclusion of the treatment. For projects where such growth is to be in English, there are many standardized tests available. However, where growth is related to another language, objectively based data are not always readily available. In cases where standardized tests exist, they should be used. Where such tests do not exist, district staff should indicate the alternative assessment instrument to be used, the ways in which the instrument is suitable for this purpose, the extent to which it has been used previously, and any relevant data from prior experience with the instrument.

In projects with appropriate objectives and procedures, learners will be placed using a standardized screening test in English and will, in time, become ineligible for certain supplemental education as a result of successfully achieving an acceptable score on a standardized test in English. This success constitutes a form of summative evaluation and an indication of the project's success.

SUMMARY

This guide has reviewed some general factors to be considered when planning and evaluating bilingual education programs. The roles of formative and summative evaluation were discussed as feedback for pupils, for teachers and for program administrators. Important aspects of standardized tests were explained and features of good program objectives were presented.

The bilingual language skills matrix illustrates the eight general categories of language skills which bilingual programs encompass. It is helpful to keep these distinct skill categories in mind when writing objectives and when assessing pupil's language skills.

Linguistic competence was described as the ability to communicate effectively in a language in naturalistic situations. Linguistic performance, on the other hand, is the degree of mastery of language skills as demonstrated or assessed in the classroom. These are two somewhat different concepts since a pupil's language usage in one context is not necessarily the same in the other. Only linguistic performance can be assessed with confidence in school settings.

The various roles of testing and evaluation were described in the broader contexts of bilingual program planning. A selected bibliography is appended to this guide for persons seeking additional information.

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APPENDIX A

Materials on Standardizing Instruments (a brief bibliography)

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APPENDIX C

Some Selected Sources of Bilingual Test Materials And Other Related Materials

Educational Programs and Studies Information Service (EPSIS)

- a) New York City: Dissemination Unit
131 Livingston Street, Room 401
Brooklyn 11201
(212) 596-4980
- b) Erie BOCES I:
2 Pleasant Avenue W
Lancaster, NY
(716) 686-2067
- c) Erie BOCES II:
3243 No. Boston Road
Eden, NY 14052
(716) 992-3413
- d) Also other BOCES units

ERIC Clearinghouse on Tests, Measurement and Evaluation Educational Testing Service Princeton, NJ 08540

- a) TM Report 61, April 1977: Evaluating Bilingual Programs, by Alexander Law.
- b) TM Report 62, 1977: A Directory of Information on Tests, by Thomas E. Backer.

Educational Testing Service (ETS)

Princeton, NY 08540

- a) ETS Test Collection, microfiche of unpublished tests, Annotated indices, Vol. A, B, C, D (1975-1978)
- b) Bibliography of test materials for Spanish-speaking students.
- c) An Annotated list of tests for Spanish speakers. (1973) (ED 079 393).

Commercial Publishers

A guide to Assessment Instruments for Limited English Speaking Students (1978).

Barbara P. Pletcher, Nancy A. Locks, Dorothy F. Reynolds, Bonnie G. Sisson

Santillana Publishing Company

575 Lexington Ave.

New York 10022

O.K. Buros (Ed.) The Eighth Mental Measurement Yearbook (1978).

Gryphon Press

Highland Park, NJ 08904

National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education

1500 Wilson Blvd. Suite 802

Roslyn, Virginia 22209

(toll-free telephone 1-800-336-4560)

National Institute of Education

Nancy A. Locks, Barbara A. Pletcher, Dorothy F. Reynolds

Language Assessment Instruments for Limited English-Speaking Students: A Needs Analysis.
(1978).

New York State Education Department, Bureau of Bilingual Education
A Better Chance to Learn: Bilingual-Bicultural Education. (1975, reprinted 1978).

Teaching English as a Second Language: Perspectives and Practices. (A six volume series) (1978).

Tests in Use in Title VII Bilingual Education Projects.

New York State Education Department, Bureau of School and Categorical Programs Evaluation
Preparing Program Objectives: Proposal guidelines for categorically funded programs (1971, reprinted 1976).

Program Evaluator's Handbook: Determining Objectives.

District Evaluator's Handbook of Selected Evaluation Procedures. (1972, reprinted 1976).

Program Evaluator's Handbook: Measurement.

Project Outcomes Reporting. (1978).

Dissemination Center for Bilingual Bicultural Education
7703 North Lamar
Austin, Texas 78752

- a) Diane Herrera (for Multilingual Assessment Project, New York Component)
Puerto Ricans in the United States: A Review of the Literature. (1973)
- b) Don Hamilton
Evaluation Instruments for Bilingual Education. (1973) (ED 087 818).

APPENDIX D

Regional Bilingual Education Offices

Central and Eastern Regional Office
State Education Department
Bureau of Bilingual Education
Room 308 EB
Albany, New York 12234
518: 474-8775

Western Regional Office
Bureau of Bilingual Education
Erie BOCES
2 Pleasant Avenue West
Lancaster, New York 14086
716: 686-2087

New York City
Bureau of Bilingual Education
Office of Urban School Services
Two World Trade Center, Room 5040
New York, New York 10047
212: 488-7294

Long Island and Westchester Region
Bureau of Bilingual Education
State Education Department
Valentine Road and the Plain Road
Westbury, New York 11590
518: 997-8700, Ext. 370

Regional Division of Education Opportunity Programs Offices

New York City

Division of Education Opportunity Programs (New York City)
ESEA Title I, room 5001
Two World Trade Center
New York, New York 10047
212: 488-6619

Upstate

Region I - Western (Buffalo)

State Education Department
Division of Education
Opportunity Programs (Upstate)
ESEA Title I, BOCES Service Center
2 Pleasant Avenue West
Lancaster, New York 14068
716: 686-2079

Region II - Central (Syracuse)

State Education Department
Division of Education
Opportunity Programs (Upstate)
ESEA Title I, Tecumseh Elementary School
Corner Nottingham and Waring Roads
Jamesville, New York 13078
315: 446-1323/4

Region III - Eastern (Albany)

State Education Department
Division of Education
Opportunity Programs (Upstate)
ESEA Title I, Room 9C71
Cultural Education Center,
Empire State Plaza
Albany, New York 12230
518: 474-3535

Region IV - Southern (Long Island -Westchester)

State Education Department
Division of Education
Opportunity Programs (Upstate)
ESEA Title, I, Salisbury Center
Valentine Road and the Plain Road
Westbury, New York 11590
516: 997-8700, Ext. 212 or 213